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GEOGRAPHICAL RECORD

AMERICAN GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY

News from Stefansson. The Society has received news of the recovery of V. Stefansson from his serious illness and of his plan to return to this country from Fort Yukon some time early in October. It has been arranged to have him lecture at Carnegie Hall immediately after his return under the joint auspices of the American Museum of Natural History and the American Geographical Society. His lecture will be fully illustrated and will be one of the most noteworthy numbers on our program for the year. The preliminary account of his five years' Arctic work included in Stefansson's letter will be published in full in the next number of the *Geographical Review,* together with a map of the region which he has recently explored.

NORTH AMERICA

The Fall of a Meteor in Northern Canada. Unusual descriptions of the fall of a meteor have been received from Vilhjalmur Stefansson in a letter dated Fort Yukon, Alaska, July 8th, 1918. The occurrence took place on or about February 26th, 1918. At the time Stefansson was at Herschel Island ill with pneumonia and he was unable to make notes or secure memoranda. His description is as follows:

''Between 7 P. M. and 9 P. M. the interior of the building in which I was lying was suddenly lighted so brilliantly that shadows were clearly cast in places other than those where the light of the brightly burning lamp could have thrown them. Turning in bed as quickly as weakness permitted, I saw the window (which faced south) brightly lit. There were two persons in the room. One of these, Mr. Leo Wittenberg, ran to the window, and the other, an Indian boy, ran outdoors. Mr. Wittenberg said that from the window he could see pressure ice at sea to the south, a distance of a mile or more, about as clearly as he could have seen it by daylight. This was confirmed by the Indian boy, who, on being questioned, added the information that the disc of the meteor was about the size of the moon; that the light, judged by the visibility of distant objects, was about as bright as daylight, and that the meteor disappeared in the direction of Shingle Point, southeast or a little south of southeast. Every one at Herschel who had a house with a window saw the light, but few if any saw the meteor itself, except our Indian. Others, as well as he, noted that there was a luminous tail for several minutes. No one reported any sound. Mr. Harding, the Hudson's Bay Company factor, and several others at first took the sudden glow outdoors to be the bursting into flame of the mission buildings near by.

''On arriving in the Porcupine valley in April I was greatly interested to learn that what was apparently the same meteor had been seen there by several persons. Those who gave me the most accurate accounts were Constable Claude B. Tidd of Rampart House and Mr. A. H. Anthony of the same place. These two men were on the return journey from a Royal Northwest Mounted Police patrol from Rampart House to Fort Macpherson and were camped in a mountainous country on the Bell-Porcupine portage. There are no accurate surveys even of stream courses in this country; the relation of the Bell to the Porcupine is not even approximately as shown on the maps. Mr. Anthony estimates they were from 95 to 100 miles west (perhaps a little north of west) of Macpherson, 15 miles west of their crossing of the Bell and 40 miles east of the point where the portage trail strikes the Porcupine.

''The date was probably the 25th of February, though it might have been a day later or earlier. Camp had been pitched for the evening, the tent door facing north. The sky was clear and the moon near the full. It was about nine o'clock when the meteor was seen. It became incandescent at a point a little west of true north and about 60 degrees from the horizon. Its course was slightly curved and made an angle of a little under 45 degrees with the horizon. It took about a second to fall and disappeared behind a mountain that loomed high in the northeast. Some part of its course from the point of appearance and another portion near the mountain were not illumined after its passage, but the middle third of the course was defined by a cigar-shaped 'cloud' of illuminated 'smoke' of a puffy appearance resembling thick, white summer clouds or the puff of the white smoke from a big gun. This gradually became less bright but persisted for at least five minutes, and probably considerably longer. After an interval, that Mr. Anthony estimates at four minutes from the disappearance of the meteor, three loud 'rolls of thunder' were heard to the east or northeast. These resembled summer thunder in character but were briefer. They were distinctly not single booms, as those of a big gun.

"On arrival at Fort Yukon I found testimony in agreement as to the date and appearance of the meteor save in the matter of direction. On the evening of February 26th, between 7 and 9 P. M. the mail carrier was on his way from Circle to Fort Yukon about 8 miles upstream from Fort Yukon. He saw the meteor appear in the east considerably less than 45 degrees from the horizon and disappear in the east-southeast right over the tree tops, not over 5 degrees from the horizon. It burst into myriad fragments. The 'tail' it left seemed to be produced by the burning of the sphere 'on the edges,' and it disappeared almost immediately. The latter statement is contrary to the observation of Messrs. Tidd and Anthony, but possibly this was because of the cloudy weather on the Yukon, whereas the others observed the meteor in a clear sky. The mail carrier thought the meteor to have been a little smaller than the moon when full, but the light was equal to daylight and pure white. He heard no noise when the meteor burst. He and his companion, whom I have not seen, seem to have been the only white men who saw it near Fort Yukon, though all saw the light it created. Knowing little of such phenomena, the two men made a compact that they would tell no one of what they had seen as they feared to be ridiculed or called liars. When, however, they learned that the light had been seen in nearly every house at Fort Yukon, they also told their version of the story.

"It will be noted that if a line be drawn roughly southeast from Herschel Island in conformity with the statement of our Indian boy, and northeast from the camp of Messrs. Anthony and Tidd, these lines will meet in the vicinity of the Mackenzie delta. I have consequently taken pains to see Mr. William Johnson, fur buyer, who has been in the Delta since February. He tells me that the meteor was seen to fall to the eastward by persons who were in the Delta about 100 miles north of Macpherson and to the south of other persons who were about 175 miles north-northeast from Macpherson. He did not trouble to get accurate directions, so one can only say that the meteor probably fell just west of, or into, the Eskimo Lakes east of the delta. Further information should enable us to determine with near exactness where it fell, even should it prove that no one actually saw it strike. From the delta Mr. Johnson reports three 'rolls of thunder' and the breaking up of the meteor into innumerable fragments before striking the ground."

Eighteenth Century Explorations in the Middle-West: the Routes of the Verendryes. Five years ago considerable excitement was created by the finding at St. Pierre, South Dakota, of the lead plate deposited in 1743 by the sons of that intrepid explorer, the Sieur de Verendrye. More recently (1917) the pioneer voyages of the famous French-Canadian family in what is now United States territory have been commemorated by the establishment of the Verendrye National monument in the State of North Dakota. The monument takes the form of a reservation of about 250 acres surrounding a height locally known as Crowhigh Butte overlooking the Missouri River at the confluence of the Little Knife River (latitude 48°).

The explorations of the Verendryes, father and sons, were primarily undertaken in search of the great geographical objective of the time—the "Western Sea." In the first half of the 18th century European nations were engaged in a lively contest to reach the west coast of North America. Spain having successfully colonized most of the New World was trying to reach California across the desert of the southwest. England had planted settlements along the Atlantic seaboard and established fur stations about Hudson Bay. Her navigators, led by Robert Crow (1737) and Captain Middleton (1742), were now endeavoring to find a northwest passage to the South Sea. From the west, Russia sent out the great Behring who discovered the Strait into the Arctic (1728), and in his second voyage coasted along Alaska (1741). The Verendryes' work was a part of this international race to the west coast. France already held most of temperate North America. The Mississippi was a well traveled trade route from Gulf to Great Lakes. Louisiana had some 6,000 settlers. It was most desirable that France should establish herself on the western sea. The Verendrye proposals met with approval from officials in Montreal, though the French Government furnished no financial support.

Verendrye began his search in 1731 by proceeding from Lake Superior to the Rainy

River. Thence repeated misfortune impeded his progress, though by 1734 he had erected Fort Marepas on Lake Winnepeg. In 1738 he ascended the Assiniboine, built Fort La Reine, today the site of Portage La Prairie, and being there joined by another party journeyed on via the Turtle mountains to a village of Indians named ''Mantannes.'' Here the course followed becomes obscure. Verendrye says the village was on a river in latitude 48° 12′. At a second village of the same tribe one of Verendrye's sons and a companion saw the ''river of the Mantannes,'' unquestionably the Missouri. The exact location on the river, however, is still a matter of doubt. Most investigators, identifying the Indian tribe with the Mandans, a people later made well known by Lewis and Clark, place the spot about the confluence of the Heart River with the Missouri (latitude 46° 50′). A different solution has recently been propounded by Orin G. Libby (''Some Verendrye Enigmas'' and ''Additional Verendrye Material,'' *Miss. Valley Hist. Rev.*, Vol. 3, 1916) who, identifying the Indian tribe with the Hidatsa or Gros Ventres, believes the locality to be further north: his identification is the site of the National Monument.

The exact determination of this point is of importance, for not only does it give the terminus of the first journey of the white man into this section of the country but it establishes the starting point of the still more notable trans-Missourian travels of the Verendrye sons, the course of which is still a matter of debate. The problem of their journey may be briefly stated.

On July 23, 1742, the son of Verendrye usually known as the Chevalier and a brother left the Indian village on the Missouri in pursuance of their quest for the Western Sea. According to the Journal of the Chevalier they proceeded in a general southwesterly direction, meeting and traveling with a succession of friendly Indian tribes. In January they came in sight of mountains across which, according to their Indian informants, lay the road to the sea. In the meantime Verendrye had discovered that it was a ''known sea,'' its shores being inhabited by a white people whom he recognized as Spaniards from the descriptions of the Indians. It seems probable that he was in a region that remotely felt the influence of the Spanish traders of Santa Fé. But the way to the sea was blocked by a warlike tribe at enmity with Verendrye's friendly Indians. The whole party retreated in an east-southeasterly direction. Reaching a river, which he says was the Missouri, Verendrye stayed for a time with the local tribe. There, before his departure to the original starting point, he deposited on March 30, 1743, the lead plate of the recent discovery.

How far west did Verendrye go; what were the mountains whence he turned back from his search? Parkman, who has been generally followed, identified the mountains with the Big Horn Range of the Rockies (Francis Parkman: A Half-Century of Conflict, 1892. See Vol. 2, map facing p. 43). The interest aroused by the discovery of the plate has stimulated new inquiry into the problem. The history of the Verendrye family and their discoveries is discussed at length in the South Dakota Historical Collections, Vol. 7, 1914 (pp. 89-402). Two maps accompany the discussion: that by Charles DeLand shows as alternative a longer route reaching as far west as the Powder River and the foot of the Big Horn Range and a shorter route to the Black Hills. Doane Robinson who furnishes the second map believes the shorter route to be the only possible interpretation whereby times and distances can be reconciled with Verendrye's arrival at the spot on the Missouri (St. Pierre) where the lead plate was found. Orin G. Libby, however, questions that this locality represents the original burial place of the plate. He suggests instead a point on the North Platte River and believes that the expedition reached as far as the Big Horn Mountains or the northern end of the Laramie Hills. If Mr. Libby's interpretation of the starting point as the site of the National Monument be correct, argument for the longer route appears to be strengthened. But the question is still far from being solved with certainty. Further research might be continued with profit particularly, as Mr. Libby suggests, along the line of investigation into Indian tribal records for the region west of the Missouri.

A Dry Thunderstorm in California. A remarkable electric storm occurred in Trinity Co., Cal., on Aug. 1, 1917. The spring and summer had been the driest on record. No rain, or practically none, accompanied these lightning flashes, and 80 forest fires were reported. For almost all of August, one-half of the men in the Forest Service in that vicinity were fighting these fires. One forest warden reported that the lightning struck 150 times in an area approximately five miles square, and another reported that the country ''looked like one vast Christmas tree, as various trees blazed into light on being struck'' (*Mo. Wea. Rev.*, Vol. 45, 1917, p. 500).

R. DeC. Ward.

EUROPE

A Study in City Geography; Lausanne. Lausanne stands near the center of the northern or more frequented shore of the Lake of Geneva. Its position is coincident with a change in the morphology of the shores. To the east the shore is bold, precipitous; westward where the coast begins to swing to the southwest its contours are softer, glacial deposits cover much of the surface, fluvio-lacustrine terraces mark ancient levels of the lake. Inland the horizontal strata give a characteristic tabular topography. To the east the country is very different: the rocks sharing in the outermost folding of the Alps show the accidented topography of the mountain.

Lausanne may therefore be considered to lie at the foot of the great barrier of the Alps. But it also lies at the exit of one of the great passageways through that barrier, the road of the Rhone and the Simplon and Great Saint Bernard Passes. Northwestward from Lausanne the route continues across the Jura following a great transversal fault to Pontarlier and thence by three roads—through Langres, Dijon or Chagny, a little farther south,—gains the Paris Basin. This is a route of memorable history. It was one of the important arteries of the Roman system. In the days that followed the fall of the Empire Lausanne was preserved as a town of the road. Kings passed through on their way to Italy and prelates on their way from Rome. In 1275 Pope Gregory X and the Emperor Rudolph of Hapsburg met here for the consecration of the new cathedral. The Council of Basel held its last session in Lausanne; there was founded here in 1537 the first Protestant Academy for those of French tongue. While Lausanne attracted a spiritual and intellectual life it also attracted a commerce that enriched its burghers. Routes following the great arc of the Alps along the Swiss plateau passed through Lausanne towards Geneva and the Mediterranean. Lausanne is a town of the cross roads.

The coming of the railway has emphasized the importance of the situation. Today Lausanne is the node of the railway system of western Switzerland. In passenger traffic it ranks third among Swiss towns (preceded by Zurich and Basel); in tonnage of freight it ranks fifth. In 1910 the foreign element of the town numbered 15,800 or nearly one-quarter of the entire population: it is a remarkably cosmopolitan agglomeration.

If it is the situation that brings the stranger to Lausanne it is largely the charms of the site with its beauty and its agreeable climate and its traditions that retain him, for Lausanne is not an industrial town. The Roman settlement, itself on the site of an earlier lake dwelling of the Bronze Age, was built on the delta of the Flon river, a site safe enough in the days of the *pax Romana* but not so during the invasions that followed. Then the town like so many others similarly situated (compare Annecy, south of Geneva, R. Blanchard, Annecy, *Recueil des Trav. de l'Inst. de Géogr. Alpine,* Vol. 4, 1916) was transferred to a place more favorable for defense. Lausanne found such in the *colline de la Cité,* a natural bastion defended on either side by ravines. Opposite on a morainic crest grew up the commercial town. The two became fused and the combined city spread up and down the accidented surface. Herein, in the absence of level space, lies the difficulty of creating an industrial center. To meet the commercial needs of the growing population an artificial flat of 17 acres has been built in the ravine of the Flon. Now the city is turning further afield to a fluvo-glacial plain to the west. The newest growth is on a site morphologically similar to that of the earliest. (Charles Biermann, Situation et site de Lausanne, Études de Géographie Urbaine, *Bull. Soc. Neuchateloise de Géogr.,* Vol. 25, 1916, pp. 122-149. For a geographical description of the hinterland of Lausanne see the article by the same author, Le Jorat, *Bull. Soc. Neuchateloise de Geogr.,* Vol. 20, 1909-1910.)

POLAR REGIONS

ARCTIC

Exploration in Northern Greenland. By the fine work of the First Thule Expedition in solving the Peary Channel problem the leader, Knud Rasmussen, established a reputation that has aroused keen interest in his second expedition (see "The Non-Existence of Peary Channel," *Geogr. Review,* Vol. 1, 1916, pp. 448-452; also the note in the *Review,* Vol. 2, 1916, pp. 65-66, on Rasmussen's "Report of the First Thule Expedition, 1912," *Meddelelser om Grønland,* Vol. 51, 1915). Rasmussen's safe return to his base in North Star Bay, "the northernmost trading station in the world," has been announced by the American Museum Journal for May. Accompanying the announcement is Rasmussen's own statement of his original plans for the expedition, which it will be remembered was delayed from 1916 to 1917. Letters from Greenland, with further details illuminating in particular the difficulties under which the expedition labored, have been lately received by W. Elmer Ekblaw, geologist of the Crocker Land Expedition, who furnishes the following note for the *Review*.

Hardships Experienced by Rasmussen's Second Thule Expedition. The expedition, composed of Knud Rasmussen, leader; Dr. Thorild Wulff, Swedish botanist and ethnologist; and Lauge Koch, geologist and cartographer, left its base in North Star Bay in April, 1917, and proceeded successfully as far as St. George's Bay (82° N.). Here game failed them, so that, with the exception of a few hares, and a seal or two, they killed no food at all. Unable to proceed beyond De Long's Fiord, about a degree farther north, they turned homeward at that place. One of the Eskimos, Hendrik Olsen, who distinguished himself in the service of Mylius Erichsen's East Greenland Expedition several years ago, was killed and eaten by wolves while out hunting game, just before the party mounted the ice cap to start back to North Star Bay.

The journey across the ice cap was accomplished in the face of almost incredible difficulties. The party ate the dogs one after another; just after the last dog had been eaten they reached Cape Agassiz, near Humboldt Glacier, on the west coast. They were all weak, exhausted, and starving. Knud Rasmussen and one Eskimo started immediately for Etah to obtain succor for the others, who were to follow along more slowly, living on the game that they hoped to kill, until help reached them.

Unfortunately they could find neither hare nor caribou, and in a few days Dr. Wulff became so weak that he could go no farther. After writing brief messages to his family and dictating to Koch a summary of his observations of the flora of the lands immediately south of the Humboldt Glacier, he bade his companions farewell and resigned himself to his fate. Koch, whose strength was fast waning and who was too weak to encourage Wulff to proceed or to help him in any way, continued slowly with the two Eskimos on the weary way toward Etah.

Dr. Wulff had continued his scientific labors to the last. According to the letters, he accomplished a splendid piece of work, both in botany and zoölogy. He had continued his observations until he could go no farther and died, as a brave man would, in the field of his endeavors.

Koch also accomplished satisfactory work. He mapped the entire coast along which he traveled, including several new fiords that he discovered, and collected Silurian and Cambrian fossils far north. According to a letter from Upernivik, dated January 23, 1918, he had not then fully recovered from the effects of his exhaustion and starvation.

W. Elmer Ekblaw

Echoes of the War in Greenland. The world war is making itself felt even in the Smith Sound region. No supplies have reached the station at North Star Bay, and nearly all the ammunition is exhausted. The Eskimos will soon be forced to resort to the primitive methods of hunting and living that they employed before the white man came with his guns, ammunition, cooking utensils, knives, matches, tea, and cloth. In Danish Greenland, where the natives have become quite dependent on the simple provisions and equipment sold them by the Royal Trading Company, the effect is even more pronounced and prospects even darker, for there the people have quite forgotten the methods of hunting employed by their ancestors and have to rely in large measure upon imported supplies.

Last year the hunt was generally poor in the northern districts, with small kills of seal and white whale, the chief resources of the Greenlanders. The summer of 1917 was an unusually severe and unfavorable season, with much snow, cloudy weather, and cold. The winter began early. As far south as Umanak sledging was possible in mid-November, so that the Eskimos could go out to set their seal nets. Heavy ice came soon afterward and did not break up again. The governor and the doctor at Upernivik, while out on a motor-boat journey, were frozen in far from the village and did not escape to return to their homes until after a month's absence.

W. Elmer Ekblaw

ANTARCTIC

The New Importance of the Whale Fisheries of South Georgia. Among the trophies secured to Britain by the voyages of that great Empire builder, Captain Cook, is South Georgia, now a dependency of the Falklands, 880 miles away to the west-northwest. Until a few years ago the desolate isle, set in the stormy sub-Antarctic seas, remained uninhabited save temporarily by the sealers who frequented these waters

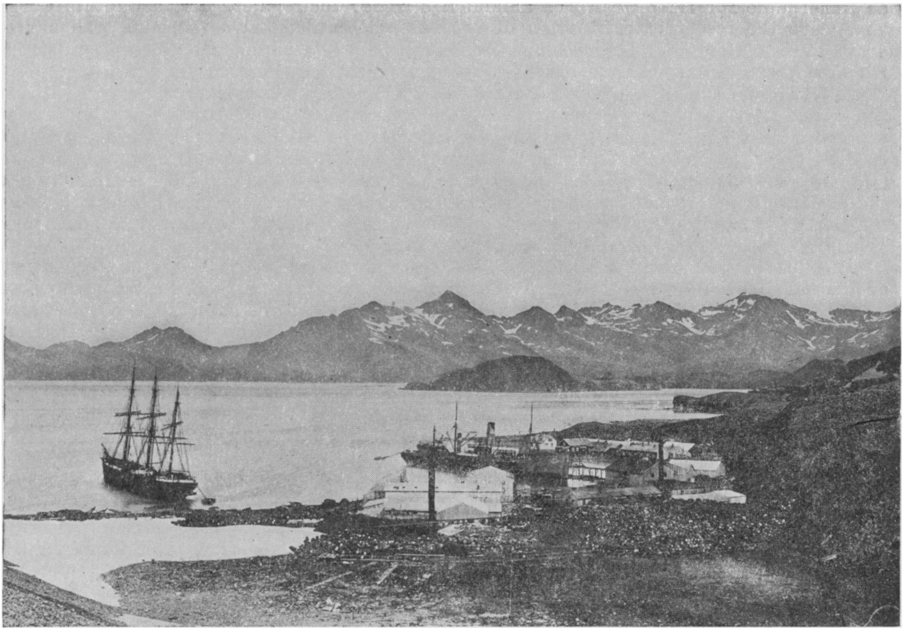

Fig. 1.

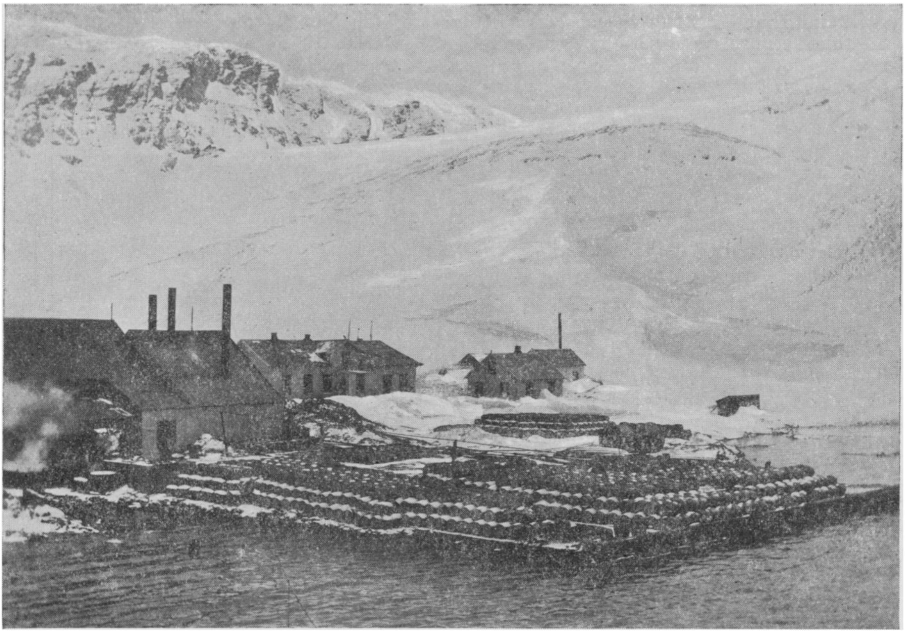

Fig. 2.

Fig. 1—Whale factory, Leith Harbour, South Georgia. (Photo reproduced, by permission, from article by Theodore E. Salvesen, cited on p. 288.)

Fig. 2—Whaling station at King Edward Cove, South Georgia. (Photo reproduced, by permission, from article by J. Quayle Dickson, cited on p. 288.)

as remarkable for their wealth of animal life as for their gales. From Captain Cook's voyage to the recent extermination of the fur seal, sealers have reaped a rich harvest around South Georgia. Today a new harvest is being gathered from these seas, for the island with its sister dependencies is very favorably circumstanced for shore whaling.

In the old days of deep-sea whaling the species hunted were practically limited to the sperm whale, source of spermaceti oil, the bowhead, and the right whale. Before the invention of the steam whaler and the harpoon gun in the sixties of the last century difficulties in the way of capture and reduction rendered impracticable the hunt of other species, although several were capable of yielding "whale" oil. Introduction of shore whaling permitted the whaler to follow these "finner" species among which are the humpback and finner whales so abundant in sub-Antarctic waters (R. C. Andrews: Whale Hunting with Gun and Camera, New York, 1916).

In 1902 the Swedish Antarctic Expedition wintered on South Georgia. The master of the ship *Antarctic*, Captain C. A. Larsen, saw the opportunity for introducing shore whaling. Two years later, with the aid of Argentine capital, he established a whaling company with headquarters on King Edward Cove and an equipment of a factory and two steam whalers. Just before the war the companies operating from South Georgia had been increased to seven (four Norwegian, two British, one Argentine); they had five shore factories and four floating factories. Fourteen other companies operated in the Falklands and its other dependencies, and many floating factories came annually from Europe. During the season 1912-13 the number of whales caught by the South Georgia companies alone numbered 5,000; their yield of oil was 200,000 barrels, nearly half the complete quota from the dependencies and the Falklands as a whole (Theodore E. Salvesen: The Whale Fisheries of the Falkland Islands and Dependencies, in "Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of *S. Y. Scotia* During the Years 1902, 1903, and 1904," Vol. 4, Zoölogy, pp. 479-486. See also J. Quayle Dickson: The Empire's Outpost in the South Atlantic, *United Empire,* Vol. 7, N. S., 1916, pp. 161-172). In 1916, of the 634,500 barrels representing the world's production of whale oil, 329,000 barrels came from South Georgia and 216,000 from the South Shetlands.

When whaling began in the southern seas the great majority of the catch belonged to the humpback species. In the catch of 1912-13 this species formed a little over half the total. Actually its numbers appear to vary considerably, for the humpback is a great migrant. Among the species yielding "whale" or "train" oil the humpback is notable because of the high glycerin content of its oil. Here we touch on one of the ramifications of the economic perturbations created by the war. Glycerin is used in the manufacture of explosives; a new value is put upon whale oil; Great Britain by means of its territorial possessions acquires a practical monopoly of the world's output of this product (R. C. Murphy: Island Resources in War and Peace, *Sea Power,* Vol. 4, 1918, No. 6, pp. 383-385; Alfred Bigland: Whales in War, *Land and Water,* No. 2930, Vol. 71, 1918, July 4, pp. 18, 20).

GEOGRAPHICAL NEWS

A New Italian Atlas. The Touring Club of Italy announces a plan for the publication of a large international atlas. It proposes to put the work upon a broad scientific basis and to make Italian scholars independent of German atlases. No large atlas comparable with Stieler or Andree has ever been published in Italy, and political and commercial considerations have been combined in the framing of a broad and scholarly program of map compilation. While the atlas is to be primarily Italian in general character, it will at the same time emphasize international features. Particular attention will be given to the means of communication in different countries and to Italian colonies.

As a first undertaking the Club is forming a library of selected books and articles of a geographical nature and also a collection of maps so as to have at its immediate disposal source material of the highest character. The maps are to be issued to subscribers in sets, and each set will be complete for one or more countries. The whole enterprise will require from eight to ten years for its completion.

The scientific editor of the atlas is Professor Olinto Marinelli of Florence, who will be remembered by American geographers as one of the Italian delegates of the Trans-Continental Excursion of 1912, conducted by the Society. To the Memorial Volume of the Excursion he contributed an interesting paper entitled "Confronto fra i 'bad lands' italiani e quelli americani."

The technical map work is in charge of Signor P. Corbellini, and the general direction has been assumed by Signor L. V. Bertarelli. The high reputation of the gentlemen associated in this enterprise, no less than the fine maps which the Italian Club have published in the past, are a guarantee of the highest success.

The American Journal of Physical Anthropology. In these days of ever more and more numerous scientific journals, it is an unusual experience to greet an addition to the list which seems to be really necessary. But this is the case with the *American Journal of Physical Anthropology,* the first number of which (for January-March, 1918) has just made its appearance.

The name of the founder and editor, Dr. Aleš Hrdlička, is a guarantee that the scientific standing of this new journal will be of the very highest. This quality, added to an obvious desire to give the publication as wide a scope as possible, constitutes its chief attraction. Especially valuable will be the pages devoted to ''War Anthropology.'' They will be the means of helping anthropology to ''come down to the ground.'' For years the older anthropological journals in this country, as well as in England, France, and other countries, have been overburdened with technical discussions whose appeal must perforce be limited. Such papers, however, are essential, and the best of that sort will, from time to time, appear in the new journal; but vastly more important, both as regards immediate value and the generality of their appeal, will be the papers on war anthropology. In giving an irreproachable place of publication to authors who wish to treat of this highly important matter, Dr. Hrdlička has started a movement which may result in putting anthropology back in that place in the public esteem which it held in the days of Darwin and Huxley. It may even result in making some anthropological information an indispensable part of education.

Another excellent feature of the journal is the provision that is to be made for the inclusion of papers in Spanish, as well as in English. This should appeal to our brother scientists in Spanish America, with whom we have many interests in common.

In addition to the points already noted, the journal will be made invaluable by the papers on method, technical questions, anthropometry, and so on. Altogether, it is an admirable publication. PHILIP AINSWORTH MEANS

PERSONAL

MR. T. A. BLAIR of the United States Weather Bureau, Salt Lake City, read a paper on ''The North Pacific in Relation to the Weather of Adjacent Lands'' at the semicentenary of the University of California, March 18-23.

MR. G. M. BUTLER, since his recent appointment as Director of the Arizona State Bureau of Mines, has undertaken as one of the duties of his new office a collection of data for the preparation of a reconnaissance geological map of Arizona.

MR. D. L. HAZARD, of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, read a paper on March 30 before the Philosophical Society of Washington on ''The Magnetic Survey of the United States.'' Since 1899, when the work in its present systematic and intensive form was begun, about 5,500 stations have been established, practically completing the proposed number of observation points, and attention is now being directed more especially to the investigations of areas of local disturbance.

SEÑOR SALVADOR MASSIP, professor of geography in the Matanzas Institute, Cuba, and Director of the Cuban Geographical Society, is spending the summer in the United States. He is at present engaged in study at Columbia University. A recent publication by Señor Massip is reviewed in the bibliographical section of the current *Review.*

MR. R. C. MOSSMAN was recently awarded the Keith Prize of the Royal Society of Edinburgh for his work on the meteorology of the Antarctic regions, which originated with the important series of observations made by him during the voyage of the *Scotia* in 1902-4 and has continued to the present time.